



Common Garden Experiments Reveal Uncommon Responses across Temperatures, Locations, and Species of Ants

Citation

Pelini, Shannon L., Sarah E. Diamond, Heidi MacLean, Aaron M. Ellison, Nicholas J. Gotelli, Nathan J. Sanders, and Robert R. Dunn. Forthcoming. Common garden experiments reveal uncommon responses across temperatures, locations, and species of ants. *Ecology and Evolution*.

Permanent link

<http://nrs.harvard.edu/urn-3:HUL.InstRepos:9716626>

Terms of Use

This article was downloaded from Harvard University's DASH repository, and is made available under the terms and conditions applicable to Other Posted Material, as set forth at <http://nrs.harvard.edu/urn-3:HUL.InstRepos:dash.current.terms-of-use#LAA>

Share Your Story

The Harvard community has made this article openly available.
Please share how this access benefits you. [Submit a story](#).

[Accessibility](#)

Common Garden Experiments Reveal Uncommon Responses across Temperatures, Locations,
and Species of Ants

Running Title: Uncommon geographic ant warming responses

Shannon L. Pelini^{1,2}, Sarah E. Diamond³, Heidi MacLean⁴, Aaron M. Ellison¹, Nicholas J.
Gotelli⁵, Nathan J. Sanders⁶, Robert R. Dunn³

¹ Harvard Forest, Harvard University, 324 N. Main St., Petersham, MA 01366, USA

² Department of Biological Sciences, Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, OH
43403, USA

³ Department of Biology, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC 27695, USA

⁴ Department of Biology, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC 27599, USA

⁵ Department of Biology, University of Vermont, Burlington, VT, 05405, USA

⁶ Department of Ecology & Evolutionary Biology, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, TN,
37996, USA

Corresponding author: Shannon L. Pelini; phone: (419) 372-8760; fax: (419) 372-2024;
spelini@bgsu.edu

Keywords: climate change, Formicidae, warming experiment, common garden, intraspecies
variation, interspecies variation

Primary Research Article

ABSTRACT

Population changes and shifts in geographic range boundaries induced by climate change have been documented for many insect species. On the basis of such studies, ecological forecasting models predict that, in the absence of dispersal and resource barriers, many species will exhibit large shifts in abundance and geographic range in response to warming. However, species are composed of individual populations which may be subject to different selection pressures and therefore may be differentially responsive to environmental change. Consequently, asystematic responses across populations and species to warming will alter ecological communities differently across space. Common garden experiments can provide a more mechanistic understanding of the causes of compositional and spatial variation in responses to warming because such experiments are useful for determining if geographically separated populations and co-occurring species respond differently to warming, and they provide the opportunity to compare effects of warming on fitness (survivorship and reproduction). We exposed colonies of two common ant species in the eastern US, *Aphaenogaster rudis* and *Temnothorax curvispinosus*, collected along a latitudinal gradient from Massachusetts to North Carolina, to growth chamber treatments that simulated current and projected temperatures in central Massachusetts and central North Carolina within the next century. Regardless of source location, colonies of *A. rudis*, a keystone seed disperser, experienced high mortality and low brood production in the warmest temperature treatment. Colonies of *T. curvispinosus* from cooler locations experienced increased mortality in the warmest rearing temperatures, but colonies from the warmest locales did not. Our results suggest that populations of some common species may exhibit uniform declines in response to warming across their geographic ranges, whereas other species will respond differently to warming in different parts of their geographic ranges. Our

43 results suggest that differential responses of populations and species must be incorporated into
44 projections of range shifts in a changing climate.

45

INTRODUCTION

The majority of forecasts of the responses of species to climatic warming assume that populations within a species are homogeneous and thus model shifts in the geographic distributions of entire species (but see Buckley 2008; Richardson *et al.* 2011 for exceptions). Likewise, most empirical studies of recent responses to warming focus on individual species and/or locations (but see Pelini *et al.* 2011a) as invariant units of analysis. However, the rate, magnitude, and direction of the responses to warming or other climatic changes by different individuals in different populations of any given species may differ for at least two reasons. First, populations may be locally adapted to current or historical environmental conditions (Gilman *et al.* 2006; Pelini *et al.* 2009; Angert *et al.* 2011). Second, individuals from different populations may differ in their ability to cope with local environmental changes (Magnani 2009). For these reasons, models based on the assumption of uniform responses among populations within a species may be misleading.

The methods necessary to assess if populations are locally adapted to climate or can cope with, or even benefit from climatic change are well established (reviewed in Kawecki & Ebert 2004). The first step is to determine experimentally whether and how individuals from distinct populations vary in their ability to respond to common conditions (Grosholz 2001; Castañeda *et al.* 2005; Pelini *et al.* 2009; Tack & Roslin 2010; Craig *et al.* 2011). The second step is to conduct common garden experiments with treatments that represent different climatic regimes. Three broad outcomes are possible. First, all populations might exhibit increased survivorship or reproduction in response to warming. Second, populations might exhibit local adaptation to historical conditions, or have narrow physiological tolerances, thereby leading to population declines or extinctions under warming. Third, local populations may respond idiosyncratically to

warming, with some populations exhibiting local adaptation/narrow physiological tolerances and declining in response to temperature increases, whereas other populations cope with and/or increase in response to temperature increases. All of these outcomes are possible because individuals are behaviorally or phenotypically plastic and populations of individuals possess genetic variation in traits that maximize fitness for different individuals in different conditions.

In this study, we used ants to examine variation among populations and co-occurring species under expected temperature change in the eastern United States (also see Fitzpatrick *et al.* 2011; Jenkins *et al.* 2011). Ants are an ideal taxon to use for multiple common-garden experiments because they are responsive to temperature (Dunn *et al.* 2009) and relatively easy to maintain in controlled environments. Temperature is correlated with patterns of ant diversity and abundance (Sanders *et al.* 2007), seasonal patterns of activity (Dunn *et al.* 2007), overwintering mortality (Sorvari *et al.* 2011), foraging behavior (Ruano *et al.* 2000), and the outcomes of interactions between species (Cerdeira *et al.* 1997; Holway *et al.* 2002). Ant foraging activities modulate many ecosystem processes, including decomposition, nutrient cycling, and primary production (Hölldobler & Wilson 1990; Folgarait 1998; Del Toro *et al.* In press). Consequently, the extent to which ants respond to climatic change, especially to local and regional changes in temperature, may have cascading consequences for other taxa and for ecosystem dynamics (Lensing & Wise 2006; Moya-Larano & Wise 2007). Other work has demonstrated that ant community responses to warming differ across latitude (Pelini *et al.* 2011a), making ants an ideal taxon for examining the underlying causes of geographic variation in the ecological responses to climate change.

Using a common garden experiment, we tested the hypothesis that the relationship between temperature and fitness will vary for ant populations sampled across a species' range. In order to

understand if patterns in intraspecies variation in temperature impacts on fitness are generalizable, we tested the hypothesis that co-occurring, closely related species with similar geographic distributions would display similar patterns in intraspecies variation in their response to varying temperature; this is one of the first studies to experimentally test this hypothesis. Growth chamber studies are particularly useful for examining insect responses to warming because they circumvent heat- island effects associated with warming treatments applied in the field (Moise & Henry 2010). We placed ant colonies in growth chambers set to summer temperatures in the regions from which ants were collected as well as to mimic summer temperatures in the future (Solomon *et al.* 2007). To determine if ants from different climates differed in their ability to cope with shifts in temperature, and more generally to determine if warming could have a net negative or positive effect on populations across the geographic ranges of species, we examined associations between source location mean summer temperature and experimental rearing temperature on two measures of fitness: survival and brood production. Fitness differences attributed to source location temperatures would suggest that individuals from different locations differed in their ability to cope with temperature change. Increases in fitness with increases in rearing temperature would suggest that populations throughout species' ranges will have increased fitness under warming, whereas decreases would suggest that warming will have negative fitness effects across species' ranges. Fitness differences attributed to interactions between source location temperatures and rearing temperature would suggest that populations from different locales are affected differently by temperature shifts.

METHODS

Common garden

The focal taxa for these experiments were populations of *Aphaenogaster rudis* Mayr and *Temnothorax curvispinosus* Mayr from Massachusetts to North Carolina (33.6 - 42.5°; Table 1). These two ant species co-occur across forests in the eastern US (Pelini *et al.* 2011a). While *T. curvispinosus* is recognized as a species (Mackay 2000), *A. rudis* is a species complex (Umphrey 1996) currently undergoing taxonomic revision (Bernice DeMarco, *unpublished data*). In order to determine if patterns observed in our focal species were similar to those for other species, we also included a subset of colonies of other species that co-occur with the focal species: *A. fulva* Roger, *Camponotus chromaiodes* Bolton, *Crematogaster lineolata* Say, *Tapinoma sessile* Say, and *Temnothorax longispinosus* Roger (Table 1). We placed single queen colonies in artificial nest boxes and allowed them to acclimate to laboratory conditions for two weeks before placing them into growth chambers at North Carolina State University lab facilities. Artificial nests were plastic containers (390cm³) with sand, water tubes plugged with cotton (to maintain humidity), and a food source (Bhatkar & Whitcomb 1970). When brood or males were collected with the colonies, we removed them so as to assess more accurately survival and reproductive output of the colony throughout the duration of the experiment.

We placed colonies in their artificial nest boxes into one of three growth chamber temperature treatments, with temperatures determined from long-term temperature records from Harvard Forest, Massachusetts (21°C summer mean); Duke Forest, North Carolina (26°C summer mean) and Miami, Florida (31°C summer mean); the 26°C treatment represents projected warming for Massachusetts before 2100, and the warmest treatment, 31°C, represents the forecast temperature for Massachusetts beyond 2100 and for North Carolina before 2100 (Solomon *et al.* 2007). Chamber temperatures fluctuated diurnally, i.e., temperatures were ramped up/down by 1.2°C per hour) between the average minimum (at 3am) and maximum (at 3pm) temperatures for each

location (Massachusetts: 16-26°C; North Carolina: 21-31°C; Florida: 26-36°C), and day-length was 14 hours long in all chambers.

We checked nests daily to ensure constant water and food supply. We censused ant colonies in July before transferring them to the growth chambers, again 10 days after the start of the experiment, and finally at the end of the experiment in September (59 days total). At each census, we recorded the presence or absence of brood and the number of workers in each colony.

Data analysis

First, we used generalized linear mixed models (R version 2.9.0; R Development Core Team 2007) to test whether survival and brood production (binomial response variables) were significantly affected by source-location temperature (fixed effect) and/or rearing temperature (fixed effect), across all species (random effect) and both census periods (random effect). To determine if patterns found across our entire species pool were consistent with those for the focal species, *Aphaenogaster rudis* and *Temnothorax curvispinosus*, for which we had broader geographic coverage, we ran similar models examining the effects of source-location temperature, rearing temperature, and species as fixed effects, and census period as a random effect. We also included a species \times source-location temperature term to determine if the ability of colonies from different source locations to cope with temperature change was similar in both focal species. In addition, we also included a species \times rearing temperature term in this model to determine if the two focal species differed in their responses to rearing temperature, regardless of source location. Lastly, because both species \times source-location temperature and species \times rearing temperature had significant effects on survival of the two focal species, we examined in more detail the separate responses of *A. rudis* and *T. curvispinosus*. For each of these two species, we

modeled survival as a function of source-location temperature, rearing temperature and their interaction. Significant interactions between source-location temperature and rearing temperature revealed if colonies from different locales were affected differently by similar temperatures, which may be due to adaptive differences such as local adaptation. We extracted the mean summer (warmest quarter) temperatures at the source locations from WorldClim (Hijmans *et al.* 2005).

RESULTS

Interspecies Models—Survival decreased with increasing rearing temperature (all species: $\chi^2=5800$; $P<0.001$; focal species: $\chi^2=3800$; $P<0.001$) but increased with source-location temperature (all species: $\chi^2=4.3$; $P=0.037$; focal species: $\chi^2=500$; $P<0.001$) (Figure 1). Brood production also decreased with increasing rearing temperature (all species: $\chi^2=19$; $P<0.001$; focal species: $\chi^2=18$; $P<0.001$). In our focal species model of survival, the species \times source-location temperature and species \times rearing temperature terms also were significant ($\chi^2=1900$; $P<0.001$; $\chi^2=6000$; $P<0.001$, respectively).

Intraspecies Models—Survival of both *Aphaenogaster rudis* and *Temnothorax curvispinosus* decreased with increasing rearing temperature ($\chi^2=120$; $P<0.001$ and $\chi^2=36$; $P<0.001$, respectively) but increased with source-location temperature ($\chi^2=200$; $P<0.001$ and $\chi^2=17$; $P<0.001$, respectively) (Figure 1, lower panels). Interactions between source-location and rearing temperature also were significant, but different, for both species (*A. rudis*: $\chi^2=270$; $P<0.001$ and *T. curvispinosus*: $\chi^2=30$; $P<0.001$). More specifically, *A. rudis* colonies from warmer locations had higher survival than those from cooler locations in the low and intermediate rearing

temperatures, but all colonies had high mortality in the warmest rearing temperature (Figure 2, upper panel). In contrast, *T. curvispinosus* colonies from different source locations did not differ significantly in survival except in the warmest rearing temperature, where colonies from two of the three warmest source locations had relatively high survival compared to their cooler source-location counterparts (Figure 2, lower panel).

DISCUSSION

Species are composed of individual populations, which may be subject to different selection pressures. Some will go extinct locally or globally, some will migrate, and some will increase in size (Pelini *et al.* 2009). Increasing temperatures may have negative fitness effects for populations that are locally adapted to and/or have narrow physiological tolerances of temperature and positive fitness effects for other populations with broader physiological tolerances of temperature. If different populations respond differently to climatic warming, then extrapolating to a single, overall response of the given species may be unwise or unwarranted. Furthermore, a species' potential to adapt to future climatic change may be reduced if some populations perform well while others decline under warming and causes a reduction in genetic diversity (Collevatti 2011). In aggregate (at the species level), all eight ant species that we studied in this common garden experiment exhibited decreased survival and brood production with increased warming. However, we observed strong differences among species and populations within particular species. Colonies of both focal species, *Temnothorax curvispinosus* and *Aphaenogaster rudis*, from warmer locales had higher survival and brood production under warmer temperatures than those from cooler sites. Survival decreased with increasing

temperatures for *A. rudis* from all locales. The results for *T. curvispinosus* were very similar, with one exception: colonies of *T. curvispinosus* from the warmest locale experienced increased fitness in the warmer temperatures. Together, these findings suggest that for many of the species in our study system, warming may be detrimental. However, where responses differ among populations within species, warming affects southern populations (from warmer climates) less than it does northern populations (from cooler climates). This latter result suggests that forecasted distributions of ant species in a warmed world, whether based on physiology or distributional data, do not account for intraspecific variability and may be inaccurate.

Because *A. rudis* populations responded negatively to temperature increases regardless of their location of origin, we forecast that severe warming will negatively affect populations of this species across its entire range. As the primary disperser of many forest understory herbs (Ness *et al.* 2009), reductions in *Aphaenogaster* populations are likely to have ramifying consequences in many forests (e.g., Rodriguez-Cabal *et al.* 2012). Unlike *A. rudis*, *T. curvispinosus* colonies from warmer, southern locales performed well under warming whereas their counterparts from cooler, northern locales did not. Southern *T. curvispinosus* populations may have more genetic diversity in traits related to physiological tolerances than northern colonies. We also observed noticeably increased foraging activity in *Aphaenogaster rudis* (S. Diamond, personal observation) and running speeds in *Temnothorax curvispinosus* (H. MacLean, unpublished data) in the warmer temperature treatments, suggesting that some of the mortality associated with warming may be due to changes in behavioral and physiological traits (e.g., Dillon *et al.* 2010).

The findings from this laboratory common garden experiment complement those from recent field warming manipulations in the same system with many of the same ant species. In field warming experiments, we found increases in abundance under warming up to 5°C for low

latitude (North Carolina) populations of species with higher thermal tolerances, including *Crematogaster lineolata* (and see Pelini *et al.* 2011a) and *T. curvispinosus*, but not for *Aphaenogaster rudis* and other species with lower thermal limits. Abundances of species at a higher latitude site (Massachusetts) increased under warming regardless of their thermal tolerances (Diamond *et al.* in review). The data from the laboratory common garden experiment reported here, together with data from our previous field experiments, suggest that the responses of ants to warming will vary across populations within and across species (also see Fitzpatrick *et al.* 2011; Jenkins *et al.* 2011 for modeling of ant communities under climate change).

Future studies should address how such changes could have cascading consequences for species interactions and ecosystem processes (Traill *et al.* 2010) that are localized and are not well projected by current models that assume uniform responses of species across their entire range. Multiple observational and experimental approaches should be integrated because complex abiotic (e.g., humidity, rainfall) and biotic (e.g., interactions with predators/prey or plants) changes associated with climatic change can be captured by field manipulations but separated by common garden laboratory experiments.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Funding was provided by a US DOE PER award (DE-FG02-08ER64510) to R.R. Dunn, A. M. Ellison, N. J. Gotelli and N. J. Sanders. We would like to thank Adam Clark, Israel Del Toro, David General, Benoit Guenard, Chris Hirsch, Neil McCoy, Mike Pelini, James Trager, and Kaitlin Uppstrom for ant collection; Adriana Cardinal-De Casas, Beth Carton, Jarrett Clifton, Colin Funaro, Britne Hackett, Nina Rountree and Scott Waring for assistance with ant rearing

248 and censusing; and Carole Saravitz and Janet Shurtleff for technical support and permission to
249 use NCSU phytotron facilities. We also thank three anonymous reviewers for comments that
250 improved the manuscript.

251 LITERATURE CITED

- 252 Angert AL, Crozier LG, Rissler LJ, Gilman SE, Tewksbury JJ, Chunco AJ (2011) Do species'
253 traits predict recent shifts at expanding range edges? *Ecology Letters*, **14**, 677-689.
- 254 Battisti A, Stastny M, Netherer S, Robinet C, Schopf A, Roques A, Larsson S (2005) Expansion
255 of geographic range in the pine processionary moth caused by increased winter
256 temperatures. *Ecological Applications*, **15**, 2084-2096.
- 257 Bhatkar A, Whitcomb WH (1970) Artificial diet for rearing various species of ants. *The Florida*
258 *Entomologist*, **53**, 4.
- 259 Buckley Lauren B (2008) Linking Traits to Energetics and Population Dynamics to Predict
260 Lizard Ranges in Changing Environments. *The American Naturalist*, **171**, E1-E19.
- 261 Castañeda LE, Lardies MA, Bozinovic F (2005) Interpopulational variation in recovery time
262 from chill coma along a geographic gradient: A study in the common woodlouse,
263 *Porcellio laevis*. *Journal of Insect Physiology*, **51**, 1346-1351.
- 264 Cerda X, Retana J, Cros S (1997) Thermal disruption of transitive hierarchies in Mediterranean
265 ant communities. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, **66**, 363-374.
- 266 Collevatti RG (2011) Range shift and loss of genetic diversity under climate change in *Caryocar*
267 *brasiliense*, a Neotropical tree species." *Tree Genetics and Genomes*, **7**(6), 1237.
- 268 Craig TP, Itami JK, Ohgushi T, Ando Y, Utsumi S (2011) Bridges and barriers to host shifts
269 resulting from host plant genotypic variation. *Journal of Plant Interactions*, **6**, 141-145.
- 270 Del Toro I, Ribbons RR, Peline SL (2012) The little things that run the world revisited: A review
271 of ant-mediated (Hymenoptera: Formicidae) ecosystem services and disservices.
272 *Myrmecological News*, In press.

273 Dillon ME, Wang G, Huey RB (2010) Global metabolic impacts of recent climate warming.
 274 *Nature*, **467**, 704-U788.

275 Dunn RR, Agosti D, Andersen AN, *et al.* (2009) Climatic drivers of hemispheric asymmetry in
 276 global patterns of ant species richness. *Ecology Letters*, **12**, 324-333.

277 Dunn RR, Parker CR, Geraghty M, Sanders NJ (2007) Reproductive phenologies in a diverse
 278 temperate ant fauna. *Ecological Entomology*, **32**, 135-142.

279 Fitzpatrick MC, Sanders NJ, Ferrier S, Longino JT, Weiser MD, Dunn R (2011) Forecasting the
 280 future of biodiversity: a test of single- and multi-species models for ants in North
 281 America. *Ecography*, **34**, 836-847.

282 Folgarait PJ (1998) Ant biodiversity and its relationship to ecosystem functioning: a review.
 283 *Biodiversity and Conservation*, **7**, 1221-1244.

284 Gilman SE, Wetthey DS, Helmuth B (2006) Variation in the sensitivity of organismal body
 285 temperature to climate change over local and geographic scales. *Proceedings of the*
 286 *National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, **103**, 9560-9565.

287 Grosholz E (2001) Small spatial-scale differentiation among populations of an introduced
 288 colonial invertebrate. *Oecologia*, **129**, 58-64.

289 Hijmans RJ, Cameron SE, Parra JL, Jones PG, Jarvis A (2005) Very high resolution interpolated
 290 climate surfaces for global land areas. *International Journal of Climatology*, **25**, 1965-
 291 1978.

292 Hochkirch A, Damerau M (2009) Rapid range expansion of a wing-dimorphic bush-cricket after
 293 the 2003 climatic anomaly. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society*, **97**, 118-127.

294 Hölldobler B, Wilson EO (1990) *The Ants*. Belknap Press, Cambridge, MA.

295 Holway DA, Suarez AV, Case TJ (2002) Role of abiotic factors in governing susceptibility to
 296 invasion: A test with argentine ants. *Ecology*, **83**, 1610-1619.
 297 Jenkins CN, Sanders NJ, Andersen AN, *et al.* (2011) Global diversity in light of climate change:
 298 the case of ants. *Diversity and Distributions*, **17**, 652-662.
 299 Kawecki TJ, Ebert D (2004) Conceptual issues in local adaptation. *Ecology Letters*, **7**, 1225-
 300 1241.
 301 Lensing JR, Wise DH (2006) Predicted climate change alters the indirect effect of predators on
 302 an ecosystem process. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United*
 303 *States of America*, **103**, 15502-15505.
 304 Mackay WP (2000) A review of the New World ants of the subgenus Myrafant, (Genus
 305 Leptothorax) (Hymenoptera : Formicidae). *Sociobiology*, **36**, 265-434.
 306 Magnani F (2009) Phenotypic variability: underlying mechanisms and limits do matter. *New*
 307 *Phytologist*, **184**, 277-279.
 308 Moise ERD, Henry HAL (2010) Like moths to a street lamp: exaggerated animal densities in
 309 plot-level global change field experiments. *Oikos*, **119**, 791-795.
 310 Moya-Larano J, Wise DH (2007) Direct and indirect effects of ants on a forest-floor food web.
 311 *Ecology*, **88**, 1454-1465.
 312 Ness JH, Morin DF, Giladi I (2009) Uncommon specialization in a mutualism between a
 313 temperate herbaceous plant guild and an ant: are Aphaenogaster ants keystone
 314 mutualists? *Oikos*, **118**, 1793-1804.
 315 Pelini SL, Boudreau M, McCoy N, Ellison AM, Gotelli NJ, Sanders NJ, Dunn RR (2011a)
 316 Effects of short-term warming on a low and high latitude forest ant community.
 317 *Ecosphere*, **2(5)**, art62.

318 Pelini SL, Bowles FP, Ellison AM, Gotelli NJ, Sanders NJ, Dunn RR (2011b) Heating up the
 319 forest: open-top chamber warming manipulation of arthropod communities at Harvard
 320 and Duke Forests. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, **2**, 534-540.

321 Pelini SL, Dzurisin JDK, Prior KM, Williams CM, Marsico TD, Sinclair BJ, Hellmann JJ (2009)
 322 Translocation experiments with butterflies reveal limits to enhancement of poleward
 323 populations under climate change. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*,
 324 **106**, 11160-11165.

325 Richardson K, Hoffmann AA, Johnson P, Ritchie S, Kearney MR (2011) Thermal Sensitivity of
 326 *Aedes aegypti* From Australia: Empirical Data and Prediction of Effects on Distribution.
 327 *Journal of Medical Entomology*, **48**, 914-923.

328 Rodriguez-Cabal MA, Stuble KL, Guenard B, Dunn RR, Sanders NJ (2012) Disruption of ant-
 329 seed dispersal mutualisms by the invasive Asian needle ant (*Pachycondyla chinensis*).
 330 *Biological Invasions*, **14**, 557-565.

331 Ruano F, Tinaut A, Soler JJ (2000) High surface temperatures select for individual foraging in
 332 ants. *Behavioral Ecology*, **11**, 396-404.

333 Sanders NJ, Lessard JP, Fitzpatrick MC, Dunn RR (2007) Temperature, but not productivity or
 334 geometry, predicts elevational diversity gradients in ants across spatial grains. *Global*
 335 *Ecology and Biogeography*, **16**, 640-649.

336 Solomon S, Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change., Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
 337 Change. Working Group I. (2007) *Climate change 2007 : the physical science basis :*
 338 *contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the*
 339 *Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge ;
 340 New York, viii, 996 p. pp.

341 Sorvari J, Haatanen M-K, Vesterlund S-R (2011) Combined effects of overwintering temperature
 342 and habitat degradation on the survival of boreal wood ant. *Journal of Insect*
 343 *Conservation* **15**, 727-731.

344 Tack AJM, Roslin T (2010) Overrun by the neighbors: Landscape context affects strength and
 345 sign of local adaptation. *Ecology*, **91**, 2253-2260.

346 Tougou D, Musolin DL, Fujisaki K (2009) Some like it hot! Rapid climate change promotes
 347 changes in distribution ranges of *Nezara viridula* and *Nezara antennata* in Japan.
 348 *Entomologia Experimentalis et Applicata*, **130**, 249-258.

349 Traill LW, Lim MLM, Sodhi NS, Bradshaw CJA (2010) Mechanisms driving change: altered
 350 species interactions and ecosystem function through global warming. *Journal of Animal*
 351 *Ecology*, **79**, 937-947.

352 Umphrey GJ (1996) Morphometric discrimination among sibling species in the *fulva-rudis-*
 353 *texana* complex of the ant genus *Aphaenogaster* (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). *Canadian*
 354 *Journal of Zoology-Revue Canadienne De Zoologie*, **74**, 528-559.

355
 356

TABLES

Table 1. Source locations (decimal degrees), mean summer temperatures (WorldClim, Hijmans *et al.* 2005) at source locations, and number of colonies placed into three growth chamber temperature treatments from each species. For species x sampling locations with fewer than 3 colonies, priority was given to the intermediate (26°C) and warmest (31°C) temperature treatments. Black text indicates focal species; non-focal species are gray.

Species	Source locations (decimal degrees)	Mean summer temperature (°C)	Rearing temperature (# colonies)		
			21°C	26°C	31°C
Aphaenogaster rudis	33.63°, -91.79°	26.1	1	2	2
	35.78°, -78.80°	24.8	0	1	0
	36.04°, -79.07°	24.1	5	4	5
	39.89°, -74.58°	22.3	0	1	0
	40.02°, -83.01°	22.1	0	0	1
	42.53°, -72.19°	18.5	4	4	4
Temnothorax curvispinosus	35.76°, -78.68°	24.8	12	11	12
	38.57°, -77.37°	23.7	0	1	1
	39.64°, -74.66°	22.6	0	0	1
	40.44°, -74.27°	22.4	1	1	1
	41.84°, -70.67°	20.4	2	2	3
	42.35°, -72.19°	18.5	2	2	2
Aphaenogaster carolinensis	35.78°, -78.68°	24.7	0	0	1
	38.51°, -90.83°	23.8	0	0	1
Aphaenogaster fulva	38.51°, -90.83°	23.8	1	1	1
Camponotus chromaiodes	38.51°, -90.83°	23.8	0	1	1
Crematogaster lineolata	36.04°, -79.07°	24.1	0	1	1
	40.58°, -76.75°	21.2	0	1	1
	42.53°, -72.19°	18.5	0	1	0
Tapinoma sessile	38.51°, -90.83°	23.8	0	0	1
	40.02°, -83.01°	22.1	1	1	2
Temnothorax longispinosus	42.53°, -72.19°	18.5	2	1	2

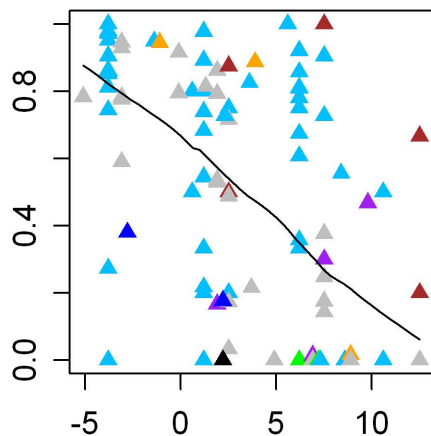
FIGURES

Figure 1. Scatterplots of survival (at final census) as a function of mean rearing temperature - source-location summer temperatures. Upper left panel shows data for all species considered in the experiment; upper right shows all species except for *Aphaenogaster rudis* and *Temnothorax curvispinosus*; lower left shows *A. rudis*; and lower right shows *T. curvispinosus* survival. Positive x-axis values indicate cases when experimental temperatures were higher than those at colony source locations, and negative values indicate cases when rearing temperatures were lower. Lines represent locally-weighted scatterplot smoothing (function *loess* in R). In plots with multiple species (upper panels), species are shown in different colors: green = *Aphaenogaster carolinensis*; blue = *A. fulva*; gray = *A. rudis*; black = *Camponotus chromaiodes*, purple = *Crematogaster lineolata*, orange = *Tapinoma sessile*, light blue = *Temnothorax curvispinosus*; brown = *Temnothorax longispinosus*. For *Aphaenogaster rudis* and *Temnothorax curvispinosus* (bottom panels), colors represent mean summer temperatures at source locations: *A. rudis* - darkred = 26.1°C, red = 24.8°C, orangered = 24.1°C, orange = 22.3°C, yellow = 22.1°C, tan = 18.5°C; *T. curvispinosus* - darkred = 24.8°C, red = 23.7°C, orangered = 22.6°C, orange = 22.4°C, yellow = 20.4°C, tan = 18.5°C.

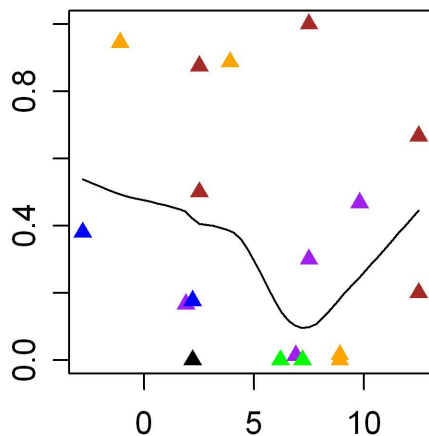
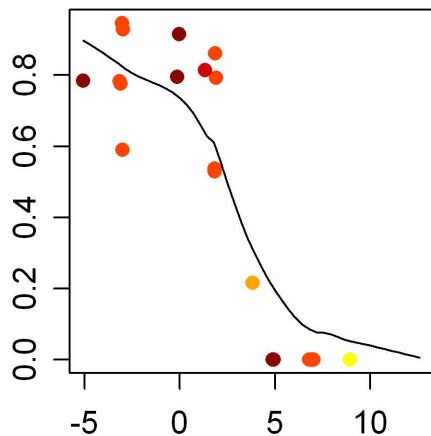
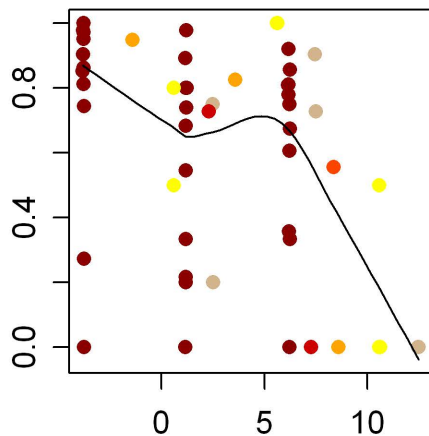
Figure 2. Mean survival (at final census) of *Aphaenogaster rudis* (upper panel) and *Temnothorax curvispinosus* (lower panel) as a function of rearing temperature. Error bars represent 95% binomial proportion confidence intervals. Lines are colored by source locations such that the coolest location is tan and the warmest is darkred. Colors represent mean summer temperatures at source locations: *A. rudis* - darkred = 26.1°C, orangered = 24.1°C, tan = 18.5°C; *T. curvispinosus* - darkred = 24.8°C, red = 23.7°C, orange = 22.4°C, yellow = 20.4°C, tan =

388 18.5°C. Points are jittered along the x-axis so that points of overlap between different source
389 locations can be visible. Rearing temperatures were 21°C, 26°C, and 31°C.

All species

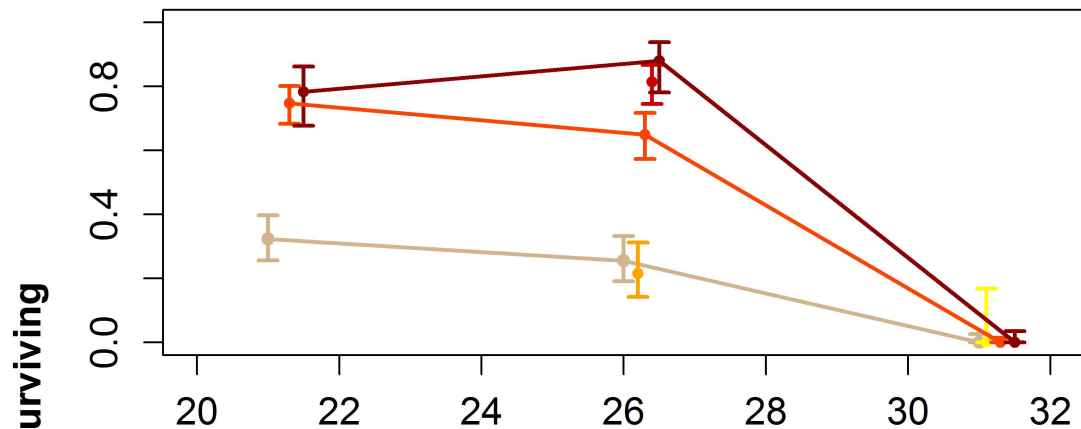


Non focal species

*Aphaenogaster rudis**Temnothorax curvispinosus*

Relative Temperature (°C)

Aphaenogaster rudis



Temnothorax curvispinosus

